

REMARKS

Pursuant to the present amendment, claims 1, 13, 23, 56, 58, 60 and 74-79 have been amended. Claims 1-30, 56-61 and 74-79 are pending in the present application. No new matter has been introduced by way of the present amendment. Reconsideration of the present application is respectfully requested in view of the amendments and arguments set forth herein.

The § 112 Rejections

In the Final Office Action, claims 1-30 and 74-79 were rejected under 35 U.S.C. § 112, first paragraph, as allegedly failing to comply with the written description requirement. Claims 1-30 and 74-65 were rejected under 35 U.S.C. § 112, second paragraph, as allegedly being indefinite for failing to particularly point out and distinctly claim the subject matter which Applicants regard as the invention. Applicants respectfully disagree with the § 112 rejections.

The specification specifically notes that “trench isolation regions 17 are formed in the active layer 21 to electronically isolate the semiconductor device 10 from other semiconductor devices (not shown).” Specification, page 8, lines 23-24. As the Examiner well knows, such isolation structures surround the transistor device to electronically isolate the transistor from other devices. Thus, such an isolation structure inherently defines an area. It is respectfully submitted that those skilled in the art would readily understand how isolation structures work based upon the disclosure in the present application and the inherent knowledge of those skilled in the art. For example, attached are excerpts from Section 5.4.1.2 of Wolf, SILICON PROCESSING FOR THE VLSI ERA, VOLUME 2 – PROCESS INTEGRATION, 1990 that graphically depict how field isolation regions (not trench isolation structures) are formed to electrically isolate a transistor. Even En (U.S. Patent No. 6,611,023), one of the references cited by the Examiner, shows a

trench isolation structure 20 that extends around a perimeter of the active region 12. Figure 1; Col. 4, ll. 33-39. Figures 4A-4C of the present application clearly show the back gate electrode 13 extending under the area defined by the isolation trenches 17. It is respectfully submitted that those skilled in the art would read Applicants' disclosure and readily understand that Applicants' disclosure does, in fact, support the claimed subject matter. Applicants respectfully submit that the § 112 rejections should be withdrawn.

The Prior Art Rejections

In the Final Office Action, claims 1-30, 56-61 and 74-79 were rejected under 35 U.S.C. § 103 as allegedly being unpatentable over Inoue (U.S. Patent No. 6,096,582) in view of En (U.S. Patent No. 6,611,023). Applicants respectfully traverse the Examiner's rejections.

As the Examiner well knows, to establish a *prima facie* case of obviousness, three basic criteria must be met. First, there must be some suggestion or motivation to modify the reference or to combine reference teachings. Second, there must be a reasonable expectation of success. Finally, the prior art reference (or references when combined) must teach or suggest all the claim limitations. The teaching or suggestion to make the claimed combination must not be based on applicant's disclosure. *In re Vaeck*, 947 F.2d 488, 20 U.S.P.Q.2d 1438 (Fed. Cir. 1991); M.P.E.P. § 2142. With respect to alleged obviousness, it is necessary for the Examiner to identify the reason why a person of ordinary skill in the art would have combined the prior art in the manner claimed. The mere fact that the prior art can be combined or modified does not make the resultant combination obvious. *In re Mills*, 916 F.2d 680, 16 U.S.P.Q.2d 1430 (Fed. Cir. 1990); M.P.E.P. § 2143.01.

The Federal Circuit has made it crystal clear that, in an obviousness analysis, conclusory statements regarding common knowledge and common sense are insufficient to support a finding of obviousness. *In re Lee*, 61 U.S.P.Q.2d 1434 (Fed. Cir. 2002). It is respectfully submitted that any attempt to assert that the inventions defined by the presently pending claims would have been obvious in view of the prior art of record constitutes an impermissible use of hindsight using Applicants' disclosure as a roadmap.

Independent claims 1, 13 and 23 include, among other things, the limitations that the doped back gate region extends under an entirety of the multiple thickness buried insulation layer and the area defined by the isolation structure. Respectfully, it is believed that such a structure is not disclosed nor would it have been obvious in view of the prior art of record. In En, the Examiner's secondary reference, the back gate 38 is formed by performing an implant process through the area occupied by the disposable gate 86. That is, the back gate 38 in En is a **strip** that extends along the width of the channel, *i.e.*, into the drawing in Figure 3H. This view is better shown in Figure 4A, which is a cross-sectional view of Figure 3H. Col. 6, l. 56 – Col. 7, l. 3. It is also clear from the manner in which the device in En is made that the back gate 38 does not extend laterally, *i.e.*, in the gate length direction, beyond this strip. That is, the back gate 38 in En goes not extend under the source/drain regions 16, 18 shown in En. The back gate electrode 38 in En is essentially a strip that runs the width of the device in En, *i.e.*, the back gate electrode 38 extends into the drawing page. This is best seen in Figures 3h-3j.

Accordingly, it is believed that independent claims 1, 13 and 23, and all claims depending therefrom, are believed to be allowable. Given the unique process flow described in En, it is not understood how the process flow described therein could be modified so as to result

in the devices claimed in independent claims 1, 13 and 23. In En, the back gate 38 has a strip-like configuration that is positioned beneath and substantially aligned with the channel region of the device disclosed therein. This naturally results from the fact that the implantation process that is performed to form the back gate 38 is performed through the area occupied by the disposable gate 86. See Figures 3e-3h and associated discussion. Applicants respectfully submit that claims 1, 13 and 23, and all claims depending therefrom, are allowable.

Independent claims 56, 58 and 60 have been amended to recite, among other things, that the doped back gate region as defined in these claims is a doped region that is doped with a dopant material that is of the same dopant type as the dopant material employed in the active layer. For example, if the active layer is doped with a P-type dopant material, *e.g.*, boron, the doped back gate region is also a doped region that is doped with the same type – P-type – dopant material. However, different dopant species – of the same dopant type – may be employed in the active layer and the doped back gate region.

As thus amended, it is respectfully submitted that independent claims 56, 58 and 60, and all claims depending therefrom, are in condition for allowance. In En, the back gate 38 is doped with a dopant material that is of an opposite type to that of the active layer. En specifically notes that the channel region 14 is doped with P-type dopant material (Col. 4, ll. 29-32) while the back gate region 38 is formed by implanting an N-type dopant material (Col. 6, ll. 56-61). That is, En teaches exactly the opposite of the subject matter now set forth in amended independent claims 56, 58 and 60. Moreover, there does not appear to be any motivation or suggestion in the art of record that would lead one skilled in the art to modify the express teachings of En so as to arrive

at the presently claimed inventions. If anything, En can be thought of as teaching away from the inventions defined in independent claims 56, 58 and 60.

In the Final Office Action, it appears that, with all due respect, the Examiner is making a hyper-technical argument to the effect that there MAY be trace dopant atoms in the back gate electrode of En that is of the same dopant type as employed in the active layer. The amendments made herein make it clear that the doped back gate electrode is a doped region – not merely a stray dopant atom. Moreover, any such doped region must be sufficiently doped to be a back gate electrode as recited in the claims. As amended, it is believed that claims 56, 58 and 60, and all claims depending therefrom, are in condition for immediate allowance.

For at least the aforementioned reasons, it is respectfully submitted that all pending claims are in condition for immediate allowance. The Examiner is invited to contact the undersigned attorney at (713) 934-4055 with any questions, comments or suggestions relating to the referenced patent application.

Respectfully submitted,

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SILICON PROCESSING
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While the E-D NMOS technology has some important advantages over other IC technologies (particularly high packing density), it does have some drawbacks that become extremely serious as the number of devices on the chip gets very large. The most important of these is the high total power that is consumed. The origin of this power consumption arises from the operation of the NMOS inverter. When the inverter (and similarly other logic gates) has a low output state, both driver and load are ON, allowing current to flow from V_{DD} to ground. The power consumed by each inverter in a low-output state is the product of this current and V_{DD} . Thus, if a series of inverters are connected together, 50% of them will be drawing power at all times. When the devices get small enough, the power density on the chip becomes so large that it becomes necessary to replace NMOS with CMOS, since this technology consumes much less power per logic gate.

5.4.2 Process Sequence of a Basic E-D NMOS IC Technology

Figure 5-14 is a flow-chart representation of the sequence of steps that were used to fabricate typical E-D NMOS digital integrated circuits for gate lengths down to about $3\text{ }\mu\text{m}$.⁷⁶ Figures 5-15a through 5-15j show what occurs on the wafer as this sequence of process steps is followed. The process being illustrated is a seven mask process (including the passivation pad mask, even though this final pad mask is not shown). The E-D NMOS inverter described in the previous section is used here as a vehicle for showing how device features on the wafer surface are created during the course of the process flow.

5.4.1.1 Starting Material. The starting material is a lightly doped ($\sim 5 \times 10^{14}$ – 10^{15} atoms/cm²) *p*-type <100> silicon wafer (substrate). As described earlier, the lightly doped substrate is chosen to provide low source/drain-to-substrate capacitance, high source/drain-to-substrate breakdown voltage, high carrier mobility, and low sensitivity to source-substrate bias effects. A backside gettering process, such as implanting with Ar, to create crystalline-damaged regions that will trap mobile impurities during subsequent heat steps during the process may be used prior to the next step (see Vol. 1, chap 2).

5.4.1.2 Active Region and Field Region Definitions. The first task in this processing sequence is to define the active device and field regions on the wafer surface. This is done by selectively oxidizing the field regions so that they are covered with a thick field oxide, using the LOCOS process. The steps involved in this task are those of boxes 3-9 in Fig. 5-14, and are illustrated in Figs. 5-15a and 5-15b.

A thin pad oxide (20-60 nm thick) is first thermally grown or CVD-deposited on the wafer surface as a stress-relief layer. This is followed by the deposition of a CVD nitride layer (100-200 nm thick). *Mask #1* is then used to expose a resist film that was spun on after the nitride deposition (Fig. 5-15a2). After exposure and development, the resist layer remains behind only in the regions that will be the active device regions

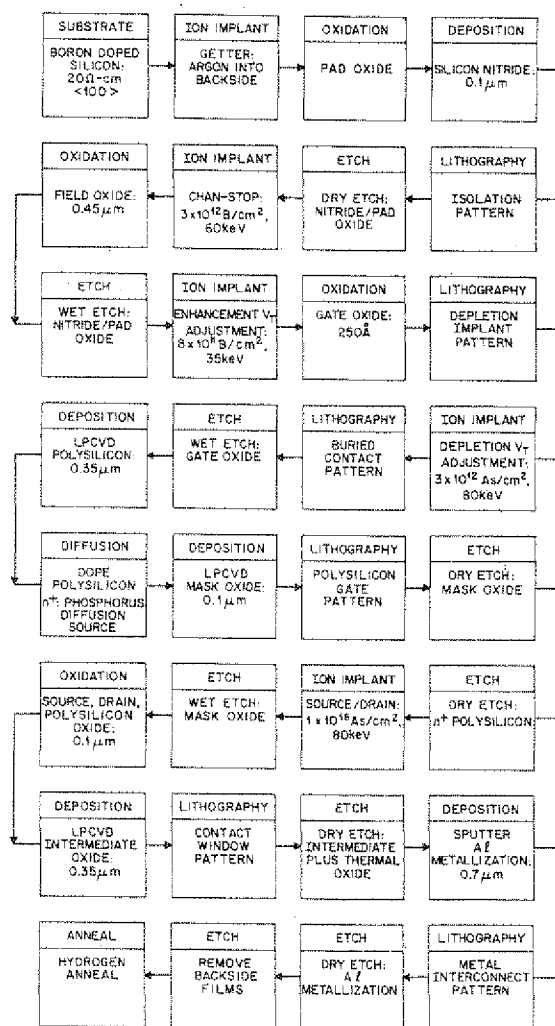


Fig. 5-14 Main steps in an n -channel, polysilicon-gate MOS IC process flow.⁷⁶ (© 1980 IEEE).

(Fig. 5-15b1). Next the nitride and pad oxide are anisotropically dry-etched away in the regions not covered by the resist (field regions). Thus, after the removal of the resist, the active areas are covered with the nitride/pad-oxide layer (Fig. 5-15b3).

In the next step, a boron implant (10^{12} - 10^{13} atoms/cm², 40-80 keV) is performed to create *channel stops* in the field regions. The nitride/pad oxide layer now acts as a mask (Fig. 5-15c1) to prevent the boron from penetrating the silicon in the active areas. (Note that in some processes the resist is not removed until after the channel-stop

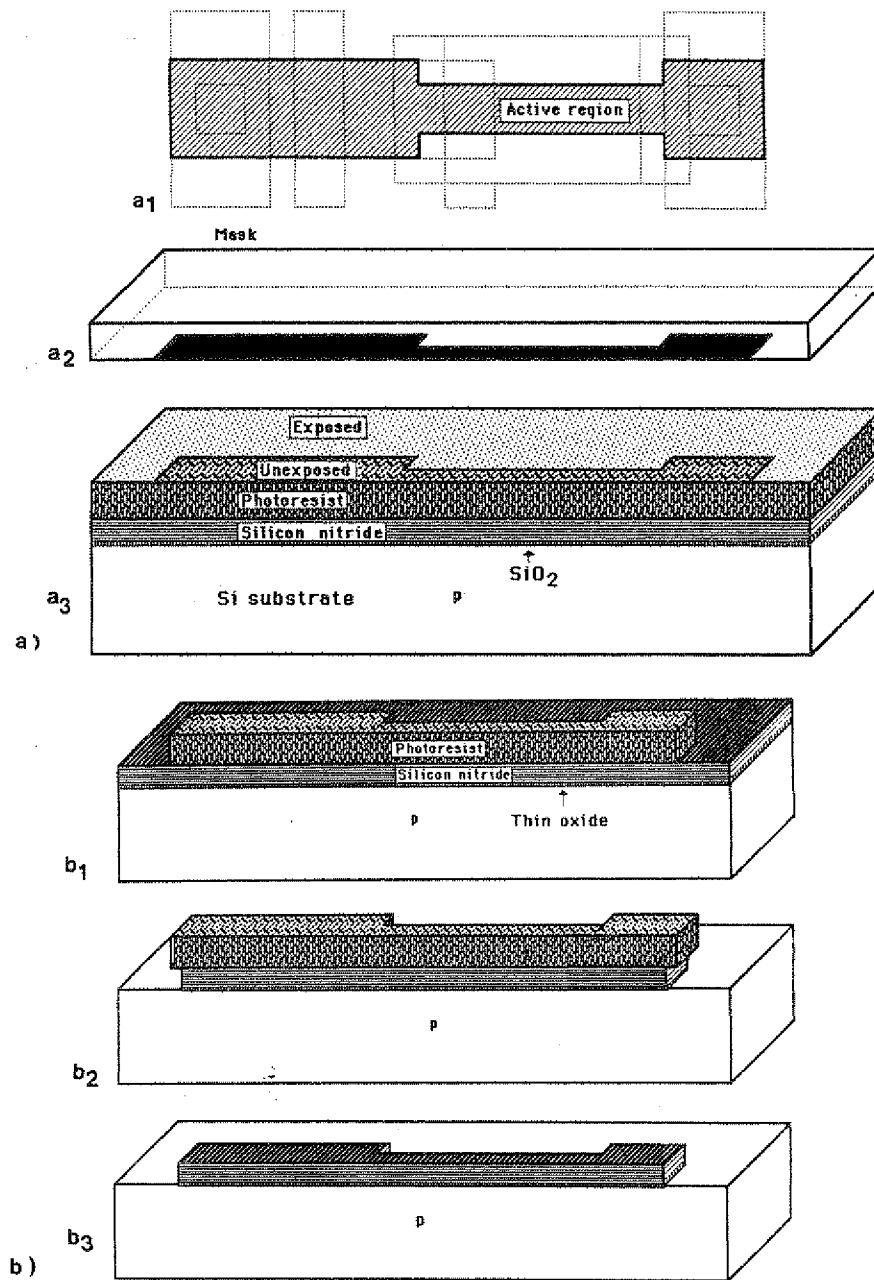


Fig. 5-15 NMOS E-D inverter fabrication sequence. (a) Patterning of the active region. (b) Patterning the silicon nitride-pad oxide layers. From W. Maly, *Atlas of IC Technologies*, Copyright 1987 by the Benjamin/Cummings Publishing Company. Reprinted with permission.

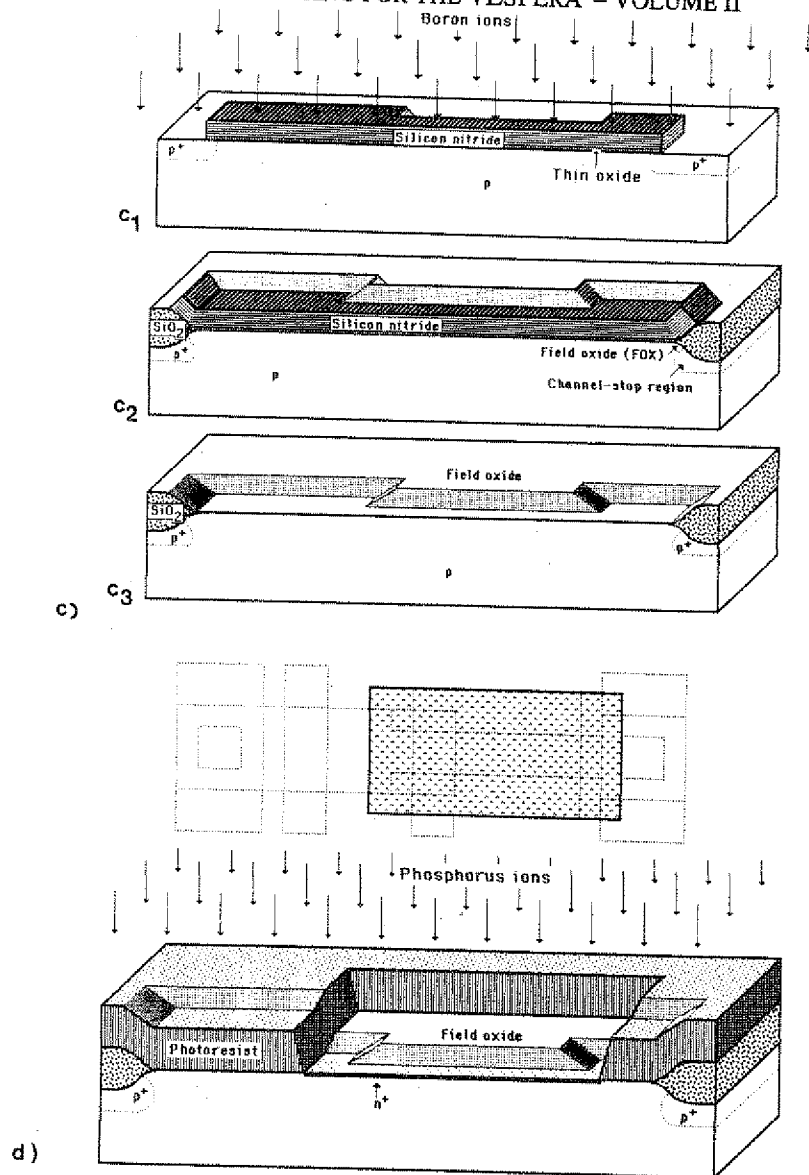


Fig. 5-15 (c) Active region formation and channel-stop implant. (d) Implantation of the channel of the depletion-mode transistor. From Maly, *Atlas of IC Technologies*.

implant, as the nitride/pad oxide layer may be too thin to act as an effective implant mask. In fact, with the patterned resist still in place, the channel stop may be implanted through the nitride/pad oxide layer, which in this case would not be etched until the implant is performed.)

A thermal-oxidation step is then performed to grow a thick (0.5-1.0 μm) field oxide over the regions where the nitride has been etched away. In this process, the field oxide is self-aligned to the channel stops. During the oxide growth, some lateral oxidation also occurs under the nitride edges, forming the *bird's beak* structure (see chap. 2 for more details concerning this effect, as well as other problems that arise in connection with the field-oxide growth step). After the field oxide has been grown, the remaining nitride and pad oxide are stripped, leaving the active areas with exposed silicon surfaces for further processing (Fig. 5-15c3).

5.4.1.3 Gate-Oxide Growth and Threshold-Voltage Adjust Implant

In the next major step the gate oxide is grown, and the threshold voltages of the enhancement-mode and depletion-mode transistors of the inverter are adjusted through ion implantation. The growth of the gate oxide is a critical step, as a defect-free, very thin (15-100-nm), high-quality oxide without contamination is essential for proper device operation. The gate oxide is grown only in the exposed active region (the field-oxide thickness is actually increased slightly as a result of this oxide-growth step). As noted earlier, the drain current in an MOS transistor is inversely proportional to the gate-oxide thickness (for a given set of terminal voltages). As a result, the gate oxide is normally made as thin as possible, commensurate with oxide breakdown and reliability considerations.

In order for a high-quality gate oxide to be obtained, the surface of the active area is wet-etched to remove any residual oxide. A sacrificial oxide is often deliberately grown on the exposed active areas after field oxidation to remove any dry-etch induced damage or unwanted nitride (due to the Kooi effect, see chap. 2).⁶⁵ After such oxides have been stripped, the gate oxide is grown slowly and carefully, usually through dry oxidation in a chlorine ambient (see Vol. 1, chap. 7).

The threshold-voltage adjust implant of the enhancement-mode devices is performed next. In this step, boron is implanted through the gate oxide (10^{12} - 10^{13} atoms/ cm^2 , 50-100 keV), but the ions are not given enough energy to penetrate the field oxide. No mask is used in this step. (Note that in many processes, another pre-gate oxide is grown, through which this implant is performed. It is again stripped off following the implant, and the gate oxide is then grown.)

Next, the depletion-mode devices of the circuit are given their threshold-voltage implant dose (Fig. 5-15d). The areas of the depletion-mode transistor channels are implanted with phosphorus or arsenic ions ($\sim 10^{12}$ atoms/ cm^2 , 100 keV) to give a threshold voltage of about -3.0 V. The implant dose is adjusted so that it overcompensates for the previous boron threshold-voltage-adjust implant, thus making the surfaces *n*-type. A negative threshold voltage is thus yielded, as required to establish a depletion-mode device. Photoresist (patterned by the use of *Mask #2*) is used to selectively allow the depletion-mode transistor channels to be implanted. The ions cannot penetrate the resist to reach active areas below. Likewise, the ions cannot penetrate any field oxide that is exposed by the resist opening. Hence, the location of the depletion transistor channel is defined by the intersection of the *Mask #2* window and the active region.

Buried contacts are then opened in the gate oxide using *Mask #3* (Fig. 5-15e). This opening in the gate oxide must be provided wherever it is desired to have polysilicon electrically contact the active silicon area (details of buried-contact formation are described in chap. 3). Since the polysilicon is deposited on the gate oxide, it will remain isolated from the substrate below unless a special opening is cut in the gate oxide. With *Mask #3*, resist covers the entire wafer except in those areas where the buried contact is desired. The gate oxide can then be etched from these regions, uncovering the silicon below.

5.4.1.4 Polysilicon Deposition and Patterning. A layer of polysilicon (typically 0.4-0.5 μm thick) is next deposited by CVD over the whole wafer (see Vol. 1, chap. 6 for more information on the properties of polysilicon and its deposition process). Either ion implantation or diffusion with phosphorus is then used

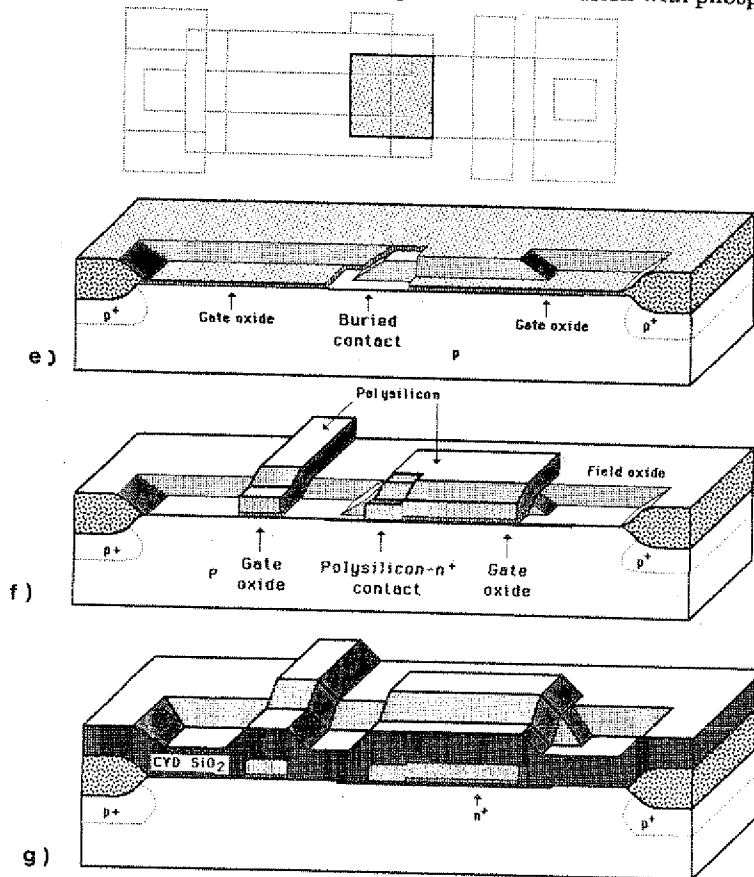


Fig. 5-15 (e) Buried contact etching. (f) Patterning of the polysilicon layer followed by gate oxide etching. (g) Deposition of the CVD SiO_2 layer followed by the diffusion of the drain and source regions. From Maly, *Atlas of IC Technologies*.

to dope the polysilicon to a sheet resistance of 20-30 Ω/sq . This resistance is adequate for MOS circuits with gate lengths $\geq 3 \mu\text{m}$. For smaller devices, polycide layers (i.e., composite layers of refractory metal silicides and polysilicon) can be used to reduce the sheet resistance to $\sim 1 \Omega/\text{sq}$ (see Vol. 1, chap. 11). Using a polycide gives us the benefits of both silicon-gate and metal-gate technologies.

The gate structure and polysilicon interconnect structures are then patterned using *Mask #4* (Fig. 5-15f). Following exposure and development of the resist, the polysilicon film is etched (in current technology this is done by means of a dry-etch process). This is a critical etch step for several reasons. First, the channel length of the device depends on the gate length, because of the self-aligned nature of the silicon gate technology. Hence, the gate-length dimension must be precisely maintained across the entire wafer, and from wafer to wafer. Second, the profile of the etched poly gate structure should be vertical; this will prevent variation of channel lengths by the penetration of the ions of the thinner regions of the gate sidewalls during formation of the source/drain regions by ion implantation. Third, to achieve the above goals, an anisotropic polysilicon etch process must be employed. This type of process, however, requires overetching to remove the locally thicker regions of polysilicon that exist wherever it crosses steps on the wafer surface. During the overetch time, areas of the thin gate oxide are exposed to the etchants. Thus, it is necessary to use a polysilicon etch process that is highly selective with respect to SiO_2 .

5.4.1.5 Formation of the Source and Drain Regions. Once the gate has been fabricated, the source and drain regions can be formed. This is normally done by ion implantation without the use of a lithography step (Fig. 5-15g). The gate and the field oxide act as masks to prevent the ion implantation from penetrating to the silicon substrate below. Therefore, only the active regions covered by the gate oxide (and no gate polysilicon), are implanted. An n^+ implant is used, with an energy that is insufficient to penetrate the gate-poly or field-oxide layers (arsenic is typically used, with a dose of $\sim 10^{16}$ atoms/ cm^2 and an energy of 30-50 keV). As noted earlier, the source and drain are thereby *self-aligned* to the gate, and the dimension of the polysilicon gate thus plays a major role in the defining of the MOS gate length.

Following the source/drain implant, an anneal (or drive-in) step is performed to activate the implanted atoms and to position the source/drain junctions as desired. During this step, some of the phosphorus doping of the polysilicon outdiffuses into the silicon substrate wherever a buried contact opening the gate oxide has been cut. This diffusion (which occurs both vertically and laterally into the silicon below) forms a heavily doped n^+ region under the polysilicon in the buried-contact exposed region. The lateral diffusion of the implanted source/drain dopant thereby becomes electrically connected to the n^+ region under the polysilicon buried-layer region. In this manner, an electrical connection between the polysilicon and the silicon is established at the buried contact locations. In some processes, the junction formed by the buried-contact dopant outdiffusion from the polysilicon is deeper than the source/drain junctions, while in others it is not as deep.

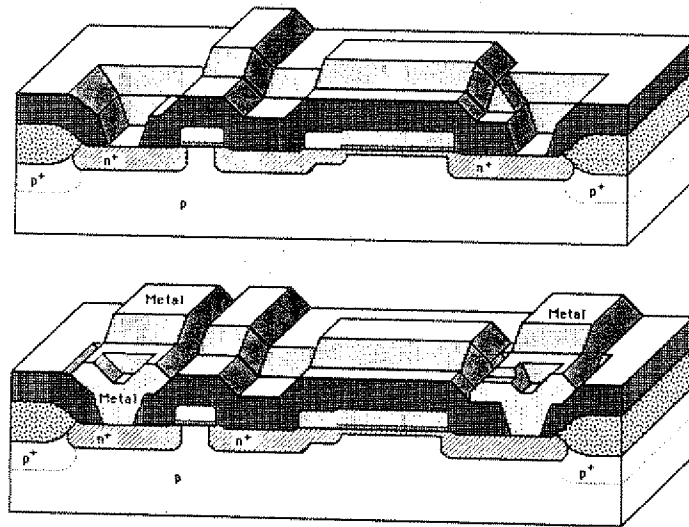


Fig. 5-15 (h) Contact cuts of the E-D inverter. Metallization of the E-D inverter. (i) Completed NMOS E-D inverter structure. Figures 15a through 15i from W. Maly, *Atlas of IC Technologies*, Copyright 1987 by the Benjamin/Cummings Publishing Company. Reprinted with permission.

The source/drain drive-in step also plays a part in determining the effective channel length (L_{eff}). That is, if the lateral junction depth is x_{jl} (which is primarily determined by the lateral diffusion during the drive-in step, because the lateral straggle of arsenic at 30 keV is only ~5 nm, see Vol. 1, chap. 9), L_{eff} will be decreased by $2x_{jl}$ from the gate length at the mask level. Note that the channel *width* is also reduced by the bird's beak encroachment into the active area (see chap. 2). Thus, the actual width, W_w , of an MOS device is $W_w = W - \Delta W$, where W is the width at the mask level and ΔW is the channel-width shrinkage during processing.

The depth of the source and drain is thus a critical dimension, but the doping concentration is not as important. (A discussion of shallow source/drain junction formation techniques is presented in chap. 3, section 3.10.) To a first approximation, the device characteristics will not depend on the doping concentration value, provided it is sufficiently heavy.

A diffusion step may be used to dope the source/drain regions. In some of these cases the dopant source of the diffusion is the CVD oxide layer that is deposited after the gate has been defined (see next section).

5.4.1.6 Contact Formation. After the source/drain regions have been formed, a CVD process is used to deposit a layer of doped SiO_2 (glass), about 1 μm thick, onto the wafers (see Vol. 1, chap. 6). The dopant in the SiO_2 is either phosphorus (in which

case the material is referred to as *phosphosilicate glass*), or both phosphorus and boron (making it a layer of *borophosphosilicate glass*). In some processes a thin thermal oxide is grown on the polysilicon prior to deposition of the glass layer. Nevertheless, a thick layer of SiO_2 cannot be thermally grown because of the excessive redistribution of the impurities that would take place during such growth. Hence, a lower-temperature CVD process must be used to get a sufficiently thick oxide.

The doped CVD glass layer plays several roles in the fabrication and operating aspects of the circuit. First, it acts as an insulating layer between the polysilicon and the metal to be deposited. Second, it reduces the parasitic capacitance of the interconnect metallization layer. Third, the addition of the phosphorus to the glass makes the layer an excellent getter of Na ions (recall that contamination by Na can cause instabilities in the V_T of the MOS devices). The phosphorus-doped glass immobilizes the otherwise mobile Na atoms within the CVD layer, preventing them from reaching the gate oxide and altering the threshold voltage. Finally, the dopants in the glass make it viscous at elevated temperatures (1000-1100°C for PSG, and 800-950°C for BPSG, see Vol. 1, chap. 6), allowing the layer of doped glass to be flowed after it is deposited. Through this procedure, a rounding of the contours of the glass and a smoothing out of any sharp steps is achieved. This produces better step coverage of the metal (which is deposited next) over the otherwise severe wafer topography. The high-temperature glass-flowing step also serves to activate the source/drain implanted junctions and drive them to their desired positions.

Contact openings are next created by a lithography-and-etch step (Fig. 5-15h). *Mask #5* is used to define contact opening patterns in a photoresist film, and a dry-etch process is then used to open the contact windows through the CVD SiO_2 to the underlying polysilicon and the n^+ regions in the silicon.

The contact-opening step can be critical, as the contact size and alignment limit the minimum size of the device. The source and drain regions must be large enough for the contact to fit, with allowance for alignment tolerance. If the contact opening exposes a part of the substrate, the drain or source will be shorted to the substrate. Likewise, any overlap of the source/drain contact opening and the gate will cause the gate to be shorted to the source or drain.

To keep the transistor as small as possible, the contact window is usually made at the minimum size achievable with the given process. In some processes, the exposed silicon in the contact is redoped to prevent shorting between the source/drain areas and the substrate (see chap. 2). Also note that the gate contact (i.e., Al to polysilicon) is often made outside the active device area to avoid possible damage to the thin gate oxide.

After the contact etch is completed and the resist is stripped, the doped CVD glass is again subjected to another flowing step. This procedure rounds the corners of the top of the oxide windows so that metal step coverage into the contact windows is improved. The process is called *reflow* of the contact windows (see chap. 3 and Vol. 1, chap. 6).

5.4.1.7 Metallization Deposition and Patterning. After the contacts have been opened, the metallization layer is deposited ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ thick). Because the metal

layer is highly conductive, it is used whenever possible to interconnect circuit elements and to carry large amounts of supply current. The metal interconnect lines that are fabricated must have sufficient thickness, width, and step coverage to keep the current density in each line below the value that could produce electromigration failure (see chap. 4). In addition, the spacing between adjacent metal lines must be kept large enough that the lines will never touch, even under worst-case process variations.

Although evaporation was the method employed to deposit Al in the early days of MOS, it has generally been replaced by sputtering. To a great extent, the change was made because Al alloys with tightly controlled compositions became the materials of choice for the metal layer. Sputtering allows alloys to be deposited with much better compositional fidelity (see Vol. 1, chap. 10).

The metal alloy that was eventually chosen for NMOS is Al:1wt% Si. The silicon is added to the aluminum film to prevent spiking of the contacts during subsequent annealing steps (see chap. 3). In CMOS, such Al:Si alloys are being phased out as the metallization material for reasons that are discussed in the CMOS chapter and in chapters 3 and 4. Either wet-chemical etching or dry etching is used to pattern the Al film, using *Mask #6* (Fig. 5-15i and 5-15j).

Following the patterning of the metal, the Al-silicon contacts are alloyed. This step brings the Al and the n^+ silicon into intimate contact, since it allows the thin native SiO_2 layer that is likely to exist at the Al-Si interface to be reduced by the Al (see chap. 3). Such intimate contact between Al and n^+ Si establishes a low-resistance ohmic contact. The anneal process exposes the wafer to a 375-500°C temperature in an H_2 or

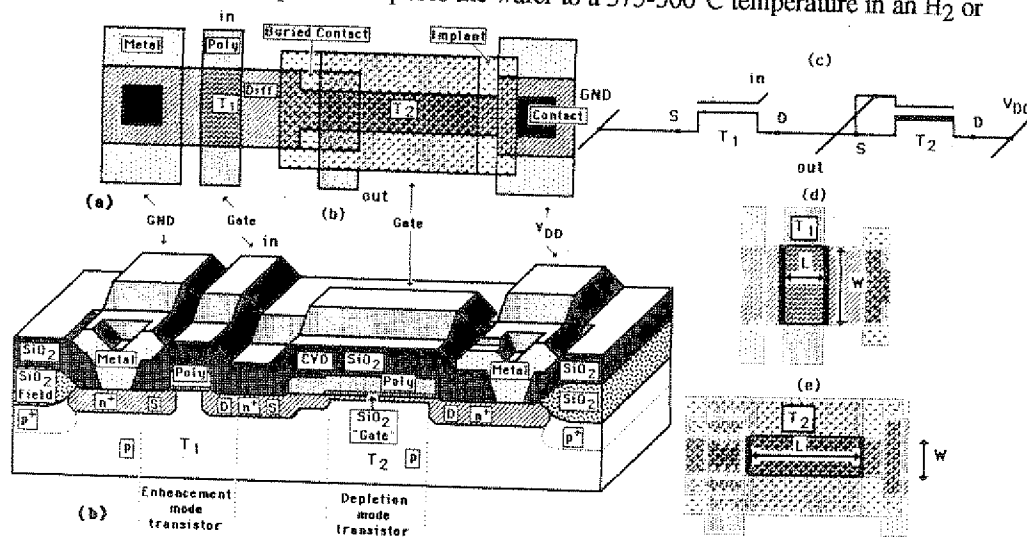


Fig. 5-15 (j) E-D inverter. 1) Composite drawing of the layout. 2) Cross section of complete structure. 3) Electrical diagram. 4) The enhancement transistor. 5) The depletion transistor. From Maly, *Atlas of IC Technologies*.